DOMESTIC HOT WATER CONSUMPTION IN FOUR LOW-INCOME APARTMENT BUILDINGS†

EDWARD VINE, RICK DIAMOND and RICH SZYDLOWSKI

Applied Science Division, Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory, Berkeley, CA 94720, U.S.A.

(Received 30 June 1986)

Abstract—We investigated domestic hot water consumption in four apartment buildings (a total of 48 units) managed by the San Francisco Public Housing Authority (PHA). In each of the buildings, we monitored system performance for 4–6 months and interviewed residents about hot water usage patterns. The shape of the measured profiles of daily domestic hot water consumption is different from that of published profiles, suggesting that cost-effective retrofits in multifamily buildings should rely on hot water use profiles in these kinds of buildings rather than those in single-family dwellings. We constructed a model of household water consumption based on reported behavior and found occupant-reported water-consuming behavior to correspond well with measured data: building differences ranged from — 19% (the model underpredicts) to 12% (the model overpredicts), and the average difference was approximately 12%. These results suggest that survey information can be used for estimating hot water usage for multifamily buildings without detailed monitoring.

INTRODUCTION

In this paper, we examine domestic hot water consumption in four low-income apartment (multifamily) buildings. Hot water consumption represents a significant use of energy in multifamily buildings: approximately 30% of national multifamily energy use is for domestic hot water consumption (in comparison to 15% in single-family houses).‡ This percentage is greater in cases where space heating needs are smaller, for example, in mild climates and in new, thermally-efficient buildings.¹ While behavioral factors compete with the effect of climate in driving space-heating energy consumption, domestic hot water consumption is highly dependent on behavior. Hot water consumption is often influenced by cultural and social norms: American households use 7 times the amount of hot water used by households in some industrial European countries.² In addition, in apartment buildings where hot water is typically master-metered, occupants have no economic incentive to conserve and, therefore, hot water consumption can be relatively large as well as idiosyncratic. For example, in France, consumption of hot water in apartments with master metering may be as much as 50% larger than consumption in apartments with individual metering.³ Similar numbers have been observed in West Germany.⁴

Knowledge of usage patterns is important in understanding domestic hot water consumption, whether for baseline use or for estimating retrofit performance. There is currently very little information on how much energy is used for particular functions (e.g. heating, cooling, domestic hot water, cooking, and lighting), and there has been almost no research on the end uses of energy in multifamily buildings. Consequently, it is difficult to optimize the selection of retrofits in multifamily buildings. End-use information is especially important because the potential for saving energy in multifamily buildings is large. Retrofit activity in the multifamily sector could save 1.0 quad of energy per year by the year 2000.6

[†]This work was supported by the Assistant Secretary for Conservation and Renewable Energy, Office of Buildings and Community Systems, Building Services Division of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract DE-AC03-76SF0098.

[‡]Approximately 22% of the energy consumed in residential buildings is used in multifamily buildings (1.89 quads).¹

[§]A recent review of domestic hot water energy use dealt with 15 monitored buildings, only 2 of which were multifamily buildings.⁵

SITE DESCRIPTION AND TENANT PROFILE

The study site for our investigation of domestic hot water use was Holly Courts (HC), California's first public housing project (1939), located in south-central San Francisco. This project contains 118 apartments that are located in 10 two-story, bungalow-style buildings. The project has 48 one-bedroom units, 60 two-bedroom, and 10 three-bedroom units, housing over 350 residents. The average apartment size is 794 ft². While the tenants are billed directly for their gas use for space heating and cooking and for electricity, gas for heating the domestic hot water is master-metered and paid by the PHA. Average monthly domestic hot water gas consumption per unit is about 32 therms, larger than the average monthly gas use of 21 therms for space heating and cooking.

Each building has an independent, solar-assisted domestic hot water system located in a basement mechanical room. The original domestic hot water system consisted of a central gas-fired boiler connected to a 500 gallon storage tank and a pumped loop distribution system. The active domestic hot water solar system, which was installed three months before this study began, was designed to provide pre-heated water to the original gas-fired boiler equipment.

Three of the gas-fired boilers had input ratings of 280,000 Btu/hr, with control set-points adjusted to provide continuous pumped loop operation. The fourth boiler had an input rating of 420,000 Btu/hr, with a control system that provided pumped loop operation only during boiler burner operation. The larger rating of the fourth boiler was due to equipment availability at the time of the previous boiler's failure and not because of a higher domestic hot water demand in that building. The boilers operated at an average of 15–20% of the time. The boiler combustion efficiency was 60–70%. Over a six-month period, the average hot water delivery temperature was 137°F (58°C) with a range in the four buildings from 132 to 144°F (56–62°C).

The tenants all have low incomes. They are, in general, unmarried, female, about 45 years old, and have less than high school education (Tables 1 and 2). Almost 40% of the sample is black, 32% are white, and 25% Hispanic. Over one-half the sample are unemployed or retired with only 12% working full-time, typically in a service occupation. In general, the population is stable with relatively little turnover in household composition from the previous year and long tenancy in the public housing complex.

Table 1. Holly Courts demographics

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range	Sample Size
Number of years lived in Holly Courts	9.5	6.7	1-28	42
Number of years lived in same apt.	8.2	6.6	1-23	42
Age of respondent (years)	45.5	16.7	21-82	40
Education of tenant (years)	10.6	4.0	0-17	40
Avg. household size (people)	2.6	1.6	1-9	42

METHODS

We first conducted an extensive review of the hot water usage literature to compile data on personal and household hot water consumption, appliance hot water consumption, socio-demographic correlates of hot water consumption, and the temporal pattern of hot

Table 2. Holly Courts occupant profile

Sex of respondent (N=42)	7.1% 92.9%	Male Female
Ethnicity of respondent (N=41)	4.9% 39.0% 31.7% 24.4%	Asian American Black Caucasian Hispanic
Marital status of respondent (N=42)	40.5% 7.1% 28.6% 23.8%	Single Married Separated Other
Employment status of respondent (N=41)	12.2% 22.2% 14.6% 48.8%	Working full time Working part time Retired Unemployed
Occupational status of respondent (N=11)	18.2% 9.1% 72.7%	Professional Craft Service

water use.† The data obtained from this review provided the basis for the assumptions used in our hot water model (discussed below) and for the comparisons of our measurements with those reported by others.

Automatic data acquisition equipment was installed in 4 of the 10 buildings during March and April of 1985. Approximately 13 sensors were installed in each building to monitor hot water consumption, delivery temperatures, supply temperatures, boiler operation, and solar system operation.

The domestic hot water system was monitored for 4-6 months using a data acquisition system installed in each building's mechanical room. The system is a programmable standalone modular system that was designed to operate unattended in the mechanical rooms. All of the sensors were scanned every 15 sec with time integrated hourly values stored in memory. The stored data was transferred to LBL by telephone modem on a weekly schedule.

To minimize domestic hot water service interruptions, all water temperature measurements were conducted using pipe surface mounted and insulated thermocouples. A positive displacement water flow meter was installed to measure the total building hot water consumption. Fuel (natural gas) used for heating hot water was not measured because all 10 buildings at the site were on a single meter which recorded all end uses (cooking, space heating, and hot water). It was not possible to monitor individual apartment hot water consumption due to the physical layout.

We also conducted a survey of the tenants of HC in order to understand daily domestic hot water use profiles and compare tenant-reported hot water usage with actual (measured) hot water usage. The survey was conducted in May of 1985, five months after the solar retrofits were installed. Interviews were completed at 42 of the 48 units (88% response rate) in the four buildings being monitored. The interviews were conducted in English and Spanish and took approximately 20 min each. Residents were asked about their daily hot water use in the bathroom and kitchen, satisfaction with their hot water, awareness of the solar system, and their attitudes towards conservation.‡

†This compilation is available from the authors. ‡Copies of the questionnaire are available from the authors.

COMPARISON OF ESTIMATED AND ACTUAL HOT WATER USE

We constructed a simple, additive model of household (domestic) hot water use using our survey results and national averages to estimate daily consumption (Table 3). The quantity of household hot water consumption was equal to the sum of the following activities: bathing (including showers), sink use, clothes washing, and dishwashing. Based on our survey results and the literature review mentioned previouly, we assumed several conditions for a given household, as presented in Table 3. For instance, the daily amount of hot water used for showering was equal to 2.5 gal of hot water per min used during a shower times the average length of a shower times the total number of showers taken per day. As another example, the daily amount of hot water used in sink use (e.g. washing hands) was equal to 3 gal of hot water per person times the number of people in the household.

Table 3. Hot water use model, survey data are identified by a superscript†

Shower	2.5 gallons/minute X Minutes/shower [†] X Total showers/day [†]
Bath	12.5 gallons/bath X Total baths/day [†]
Sink	3 gallons/person/day X Persons/household [†]
Clothes washing	25 gallons/load X Loads/day † Adjusted for hand washing - 3 gallons X Hand washing events/day for people with washers † - 2 gallons X Hand washing events/day * X Persons/household † for people without washers
Dishwashing	15 gallons/day for people with dishwashers 3 gallons/person/day X Persons/household [†] for people without dishwashers
HOT WATER	USE = Shower + Bath + Sink + Clothes washing + Dishwashing old/day)

Using this model, we estimated daily household water consumption for each unit and averaged consumption for all the units in each building monitored (Table 4). We also calculated total building hot water usage by multiplying household averages by the number of units in each building. We compared estimated usage with measured usage, and found the differences to be relatively small: the range was from -19% (the model underpredicts) to 12% (the model overpredicts), and the average difference was approximately 12% for the four buildings. It is important to note that measured usage was adjusted to take into account the amount of leakage occurring in these buildings. In our interviews and on-site inspections, we discovered a number of places where hot water was leaking (hot water faucets and taps). In addition, in our analysis of the hourly profiles of hot water usage, we observed late night/early morning hot water consumption without any associated hot water events, suggesting hot water leaks (see below). Leakiness is reported at the bottom of Table 4, and it is interesting to note that the model is least accurate where the most leaking occurs. Accordingly, we suspect that model estimates would be more accurate when these leaks are fixed, as well as when other water uses are included in the model (e.g. many people in the survey noted they use hot water to mop the floors).

The average measured household consumption, 74 gal/day, in this project is slightly higher than any of the average values reported in the literature (which average around 65–70 gal/day). Incomplete accounting for leaking in HC and the emphasis on single-family households in the literature contribute to these consumption differences. In addition, in this case, the PHA pays for the hot water gas consumption, and we would expect higher use by consumers.

Table 4. Comparison of estimated and measured hot water consumption

	Total	Bldg. D	Bldg. E	Bldg. F	Bldg. G
Estimated daily household use (gallons/household/day)	76	59	76	90	69
Estimated daily personal use (gallons/capita/day)	31	34	34	29	27
Number of units	48	9	15	15	9
Estimated total daily building use (gallons/building/day)	3642	531	1140	1350	621
Measured (May-August 1985) total daily building use (gallons/building/day)	3560	658	1018	1209	675
Difference between measured and estimated (gallons)		-127	122	93	-54
Difference between measured and estimated (percent)		-19	12	8	-8
Leakiness (percent of total gallons that leak)		11	27	24	3

PROFILE OF CONSUMPTION PATTERNS

Hot water consumption varies with the time of day, the day of the week, and the month of the year. A typical daily profile at HC shows peaks in the morning and evening indicating household bathing practices, peaks around meal times for cooking and dishwashing, and scattered peaks throughout the day for clothes washing. Figure 1 shows the hourly variation in domestic hot water consumption for a one week period in Building D, a nine-unit building. While the average daily consumption in the building varies between 30 and $40 \, \text{gal/hr}$, peak events exceed $150 \, \text{gal/hr}$.

Standard consumption profiles are presented in Fig. 2 and are widely used for sizing domestic hot water systems as well as for estimating retrofit performance. The top two profiles are primarily composed of single-family dwellings, and the third profile is from HC. Recently, additional profiles have been published that reflect different household types. However, there is almost no information on hot water usage patterns in multifamily buildings.

We observed different usage patterns on weekdays and weekends; hence, we constructed separate profiles for these periods. Figure 3 shows average weekday and weekend profiles (based on 40 and 20 days respectively) for Building F, a 15-unit building. The weekend profile shows a very large peak during the middle of the day while the weekday profile is more evenly spread out with two distinctive, smaller peaks in the morning and early evening. The weekday profile does not resemble the profiles reported in the literature (Fig. 2) and may be more representative of homes that are occupied during the entire day (i.e. there is constant use).

What is curious about both profiles is the constant hot water consumption between midnight and 5:00 a.m., roughly 15 gal/hr. It is speculated that this consumption represents leaks from faucets and taps in the apartments. This continuous loss of hot water down the bathroom and kitchen drains represents 20–30% of the total hot water consumption, amounting to thousands of dollars a year for the 118-unit complex.

The survey data was used to construct an end-use breakdown for the daily profiles by

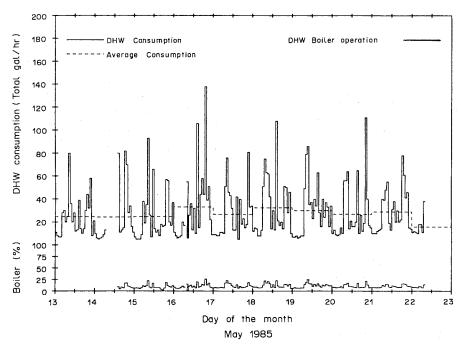


Fig. 1. Domestic hot water consumption and boiler on-time for nine-unit Building D, Holly Courts, San Francisco, California, May 13-23 1985.

combining their reported frequency of use with standard usage factors. The largest daily hot water use (43% of total) is for bathing and showering, which is split evenly between the morning and evening periods. Clothes washing is the next largest user (30%), and occurs during the morning, afternoon, and evening periods, with the greatest usage in the morning. The third main hot water use is dishwashing (26%), and follows the same pattern as clothes washing.

The reported data on time and frequency of hot water use were combined to form an average daily profile, which is compared to the measured average daily profile in Fig. 4. (The average measured night-time flow was added to the reported data to account for the leaking faucets.) The profiles are remarkably close, giving support to the reliability of the occupant-reported data.

CORRELATES OF ESTIMATED HOT WATER CONSUMPTION

We have also examined potentially significant correlates of estimated hot water consumption in individual apartments. We first estimated household hot water consumption based on our regression model. We then regressed estimated household hot water use on the following household characteristics: number of years lived at HC, number of years lived in apartment, age of respondent, education of respondent, households with/without children (5 years old or less), special uses of hot water, other uses of hot water, reported presence of a leaky faucet, satisfaction with hot water temperatures, and a hot water conservation index.

We found education to be the only significant variable (at the 0.01 significance level) of household hot water use. Thus, the more education the respondent had, the more hot water used in the household. Because education is often highly correlated with income, it is likely that those people with higher education had more water using appliances. This was partially true in our sample: education was significantly related (0.05 level) to clothes washers (but not to dishwashers). There was no significant correlation of hot water consumption to hot water delivery temperature, but that is not unexpected. Only 43% of the total hot water use is sensitive to water temperature (bathing and showering) with the remaining usage a function of appliance set-points (clothes and dishwashers).

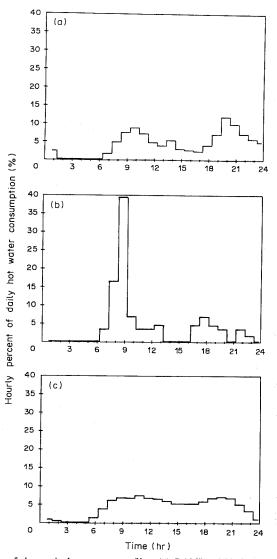


Fig. 2. Comparison of domestic hot water profiles: (a) RAND 1974, based on 21 New Jersey apartments; (b) NSDN 1981, based on 15 single-family houses and 202 apartments (in three apartment buildings) over a six-month period; and (c) Holly Court 1985, based on 48 apartments (in four apartment buildings) over a six-month period. [Source for RAND and NSDN profiles:

Barvir et al., 1981.8]

CONCLUSIONS

Few data exist on end-use energy consumption in multifamily buildings, especially, low-income households. We have shown that average household hot water consumption in public housing, after accounting for leaks, is slightly greater than average consumption in single-family dwellings. We attribute most of this difference to the fact that the PHA pays for the gas used for heating water.

We modeled hot water consumpton for four low-income apartment buildings with moderate success (12% average error). Deviations from our estimates are due largely to leaks in buildings rather than to the behavior of the tenants. These results suggest that survey information can be used to estimate (and possibly forecast) hot water use in multifamily buildings without detailed monitoring. Estimated profiles of hot water consumption compare well with profiles from actual data. The hot water profiles found by us differ somewhat from those reported in the literature for single-family buildings. Clearly, retrofits planned for multifamily buildings (especially, solar hot water retrofits).

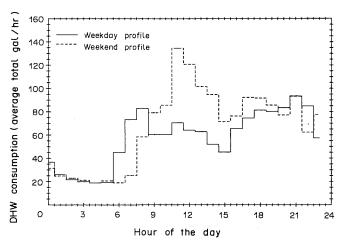


Fig. 3. Average weekend and weekday domestic hot water profiles for 15-unit Building F, Holly Courts, San Francisco, California.

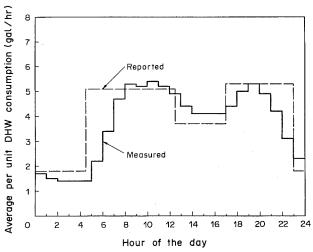


Fig. 4. Reported vs measured domestic hot water use for 48 units, Holly Courts, San Francisco, California, March 21 1985-August 22 1985.

require applicable data.

Leakage of hot water was a significant problem in the four buildings we examined. The PHA's immediate task for reducing energy use is elimination of these leaks. Because we examined hot water use only during the Spring, we suggest that use be monitored and occupants surveyed during the Winter to obtain seasonal profiles in multifamily buildings.

Acknowledgements—We would like to acknowledge the help of the following people. C. Goldman for analyzing the consumption data and organizing it in such a way that we could make sense of it; R. Atkielski and J. Cortez at the Housing Authority of San Francisco for their assistance and cooperation; J. Reed of the Pacific Gas and Electric Company for providing utility data; S. Gold and K. Greely for their assistance with the survey; L. Lewicki for installation of the monitoring equipment; the anonymous journal reviewer; and the residents of Holly Courts for their time and cooperation.

REFERENCES

- 1. U.S. Department of Energy, Building energy retrofit research—multifamily sector: multiyear plan FY 1986-91, Washington, D.C. (1985).
- 2. L. Schipper, Progress in More Efficient Energy Use: the Importance of Keeping Score. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Washington, D.C. (1982).
- 3. Compagnie Generale des Eaux, in Guiding Principles Concerning Design of Experiments, Instrumentation, and

- Measuring Techniques, (Edited by G. V. Frascatoro and M. D. Lyberg). Swedish Council for Building Research, Stockholm (1983).
- 4. A. L. Coe, in Guiding Principles Concerning Design of Experiments, Instrumentation, and Measuring Techniques, (Edited by G. V. Frascatoro and M. D. Lyberg). Swedish Council for Building Research, Stockholm (1983).
- 5. A. Usibelli, in *Proc. 1984 Summer Study on Energy Efficiency in Buildings*. American Council for an Energy Efficient Economy, Washington, D.C. (1984).
- Office of Technology Assessment, Energy Efficiency in Buildings in Cities. OTA-E-168. Washington, D.C. (1982).
- Ontario Hydro, Development of Residential Hot Water Use Patterns. Report RP-430. Toronto, Ontario (1984).
- 8. E. J. Barvir et al., Sol. Engng 6, 319 (1981).